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ABSTRACT

The potential for expanding job opportunities for college students to help cover expenses and provide valuable experiences was evaluated, based on an informal survey of federal, state, and institutional work-study programs. The focus is on recent innovations and possibilities for improvement. The U.S. Department of Education administers two programs supporting work-study opportunities, College Work-Study (CWS) and Cooperative Education. There is also a proposal to add a work-study option under the State Student Incentive Grant program. At the federal level, it is unclear how well the existing CWS program works and who benefits from it. The main issues now facing cooperative education is its survival as a federal program. At the state level, there is evidence of innovative ideas for improving work-study programs: 17 states have implemented work-study programs, and 15 more have them under consideration. While at some schools, students do routine campus jobs, some colleges help students set up franchises to provide goods and services to other college students. Many colleges are trying to improve the quality of student jobs. In addition to data on federal and state programs, information is provided on the status of state plans for work-study programs as of September 1985. (SW)

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Working Your Way Through College: A New Look At An Old Idea

Pamela Christoffel, Consultant
Washington Office of the College Board

October 1985

College Entrance Examination Board, New York

The College Board

The College Board is a nonprofit membership organization that provides tests and other educational services for students, schools, and colleges. The membership is composed of more than 2,500 colleges, schools, school systems, and education associations. Representatives of the members serve on the Board of Trustees and advisory councils and committees that consider the programs of the College Board and participate in the determination of its policies and activities.

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FOREWORD

Students and their families now borrow upwards of $10 billion a year for college expenses, causing educators and policymakers to worry about the growing reliance on loans to finance higher education and the potentially corrosive effects of mounting student indebtedness on academic and career choices. One alternative to help stem the trend toward loan financing might be greater emphasis on student employment.

Working to pay college bills: the idea is hardly new and no panacea for the problem of rising college tuition, but new approaches to student employment are attracting attention in the education community. This report is based on an informal survey of federal, state, and institutional work-study programs. It evaluates the potential for expanding job opportunities to help cover tuition increases as well as to enhance the educational experience and career prospects of students.

Over a million students a year participate in the federal College Work-Study and related programs. This study concludes that more should be known about the operation and effectiveness of these federal programs, but in an era of big budget deficits no one expects major expansion or new policy initiatives from the federal government. Meanwhile, the study finds that states are advancing innovations to improve student employment programs; 17 states have implemented work-study programs while 15 more have them under consideration. Historically some colleges have been committed and organized to blend academic and work experiences for their students. More recently a number of institutions, as reported in this study, have sought new ways to expand job opportunities on and off campus, helping students work and learn at the same time.

We hope this publication spotlights issues as well as promising program ideas for those concerned with the role of student work and wages in the complicated equation of college finance.

Pamela Christoffel, consultant to the College Board, wrote the report. A policy studies grant from the Ford Foundation helped support the effort. We are grateful to the Foundation and to many individuals in the U.S. Department of Education, state education agencies, and colleges and universities who generously provided information and comment. The views expressed in the report, however, are the author's and should not be ascribed to the College Board, the Ford Foundation, or any of the individuals who assisted in the project.

Lawrence E. Gladieux
Executive Director

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I. INTRODUCTION

My father paved streets with bricks to pay for college. I checked men out of women's dorms at 11 p.m. and locked the doors to pay for college. My son, if he's capable, may be like the Princeton senior who told me recently that the small mutual fund he administers helps him pay for college. Many students work to help meet their college costs. Some things never change. Or do they?

This report takes a new look at an old idea: working your way through college. What is the potential for expanding student employment opportunities to help cover increases in tuition as well as to enrich the educational experience?

Educators and public policymakers have become increasingly concerned about the growing reliance of students on loans to pay rising college costs. Greater emphasis on student employment has been seen in some quarters as one way to stem the problem. Kenneth Ashworth, Texas Commissioner of Higher Education and president of the State Higher Education Executive Officers told Congress recently that the present imbalance in the system of financing higher education "is creating a nation of college graduates whose burden of debt is having -- and will increasingly have -- a deleterious effect not only upon the individual graduates but upon their communities, their States and upon the nation at large" (Ashworth, 1985). Although he suggested that the primary negative consequence of excessive borrowing is a likely rise in the rate and volume of loan defaults, Ashworth argued that there are other negative effects. For example, indebtedness may pressure students to base career choices solely on future income potential and avoid social service and other low-paying fields. Ashworth suggested a renewed emphasis on need-based grants and subsidized work opportunities.

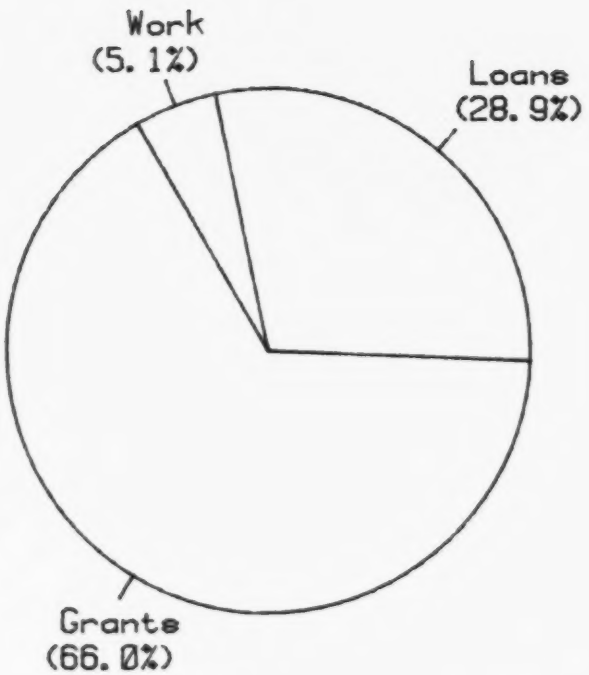
In Higher Education and the American Resurgence (forthcoming), Frank Newman, President of the Education Commission of the States, likewise sounds an alarm about the effects of growing student indebtedness and proposes a major expansion of the federal College Work-Study (CWS) program. Newman suggests that the share of all students working should be expanded to almost all those receiving aid.

Loans, indeed, have made up a larger and larger proportion of student aid packages since the mid-1970s, whereas grants and work have declined as a percentage of total available aid. The chart (Figure I) on page 2 illustrates the shift. Meanwhile, college costs have been rising much faster than general inflation during the 1980s.

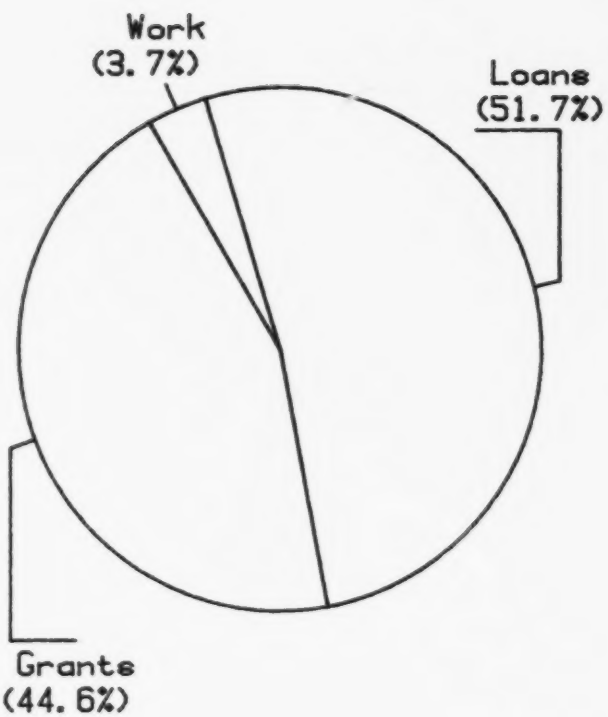
New interest in work-study has also been generated by increased pressure lately to improve the quality of existing jobs for students. Students themselves, facing the prospect of a tough job market at graduation, often prefer career-related jobs that will give them a head start with corporate recruiters. Educators, realizing that many students need to work for financial reasons, have begun to see the positive aspect of jobs that are relevant to academic studies. Too many students, they argue, are washing

Figure 1. Grants, Loans, and Work as a Percentage of Total Aid

1970-71



1984-85



Sources: Gillespie and Carlson, 1983, p. 12
and College Board, 1984, p. 4.

dishes or answering telephones. Some institutions are responding by developing student jobs designed to enhance and expand academic learning.

At the same time, some policy analysts worry about the appropriateness of having student work programs provide basic support to colleges and universities. Most students working under the federal CWS program, as well as under some state work programs, are employed in jobs on campus. Nearly 90 percent of CWS participants work on campus, according to federal estimates. These students help in many ways to maintain daily operations at postsecondary institutions -- in the libraries, in the administrative offices, and in the cafeterias. Some policymakers wonder whether public monies provided as student (work) aid should in fact indirectly support institutions, both public and private. More work off-campus should be available to students, they suggest. Others see nothing wrong with such indirect institutional aid -- an unintended but positive side benefit. This debate continues.

This paper presents an overview of the federal, state, and institutional work programs established to help students work and pay for college. The focus is on recent innovations and possibilities for improvement.

II. TRENDS IN STUDENT EMPLOYMENT

If students and their families need additional resources to pay for college, where will they find the money? Can more students work who are not employed now? Can already employed students increase their work hours and/or their wages? Before we examine work-study programs themselves, we should raise certain considerations about student employment and its potential for expansion.

To address the question, Can more students work? we must ask another: How many students work now? The answer is, we don't really know. One group recently decried the "paucity" of reliable national data in this area (Task Force, 1985, p. 4). Actually there is a great deal of data; it just can not be assembled to make a clear picture of student employment.

Students start out facing a tough national labor situation. National employment rates vary by age, race, and sex, but youth unemployment is higher than overall unemployment. Unemployment rates for blacks and women are usually greater than for white males, and for black young women, unemployment rates may reach as high as 50 percent (ibid.). But what do we know specifically about student employment? Four studies each give a piece of the answer. From the first study (Astin et al., 1984) we find the following:

- Employment expectations were not very high among a group of full-time freshmen (80 percent of whom were classified as dependent on their parents for support).
- Although two thirds expressed concern about financing college, little more than one third estimated chances as very good that they would get a job to pay college expenses.

- Fifty-five percent did not expect to contribute anything from summer earnings toward their college expenses.

- Less than one fourth expected to contribute toward their educational costs from term-time employment, either full- or part-time.

But these were freshmen studying full time who were surveyed at the very beginning of their first college year. Expectations can change as reality sets in. And students attending part time are more likely to be working. Data from a second national survey appears to confirm this (Carroll, 1985). This research, including both full- and part-time students, shows that:

- More students work than perhaps expected to, and

- Student employment varies by attendance rate and by type of institution:

  -Among 1980 high school seniors attending college in fall 1980, roughly two thirds of those enrolled part time were employed -- either full or part time. About 52 percent of the full-time students had full or part time jobs.

  -By fall 1981, over 75 percent of the part-time students were working, whereas the employment rate for full-time students changed little (55 percent).

  -Students at public two-year institutions showed the highest employment rates.

The above data, from a longitudinal study of 1980 high school seniors who were surveyed annually over the subsequent four years, show remarkable consistency in student employment rates over time. By fall 1983, employment rates for these students had risen slightly, but the pattern of employment differences between full- and part-time students remained. National data from the Department of Labor provide similar, if slightly lower, figures (Young, 1984) for students between the ages of 16 and 24.

These studies provide valuable information, but they exclude a significant portion of the college student population -- older students and students who did not enroll directly following high school graduation. A fourth national survey, "Participation in Adult Education, 1981" (National Center for Education Statistics, 1984), studied such adults, but only those participating in courses and organized educational activities that were not full time leading to an academic degree. Many of these adult part-time students were enrolled in courses outside postsecondary institutions, so again these data supply only partially useful information. Among all these adult students, however, nearly 80 percent were employed.

Can we draw any conclusions from these national studies? Overall, the majority of students appear to be working already, at least part time. Students studying part time are likely to work more than full-time students and probably cannot increase their employment rates significantly. Full-time

students, however, might be able to work more, especially those at independent or public four-year institutions, since they tend to work less than students at public two-year schools. Of course, these estimates of potential expansion don't take into account other factors that may inhibit students from working, such as lack of availability of local jobs, heavy academic course loads, and so on.

So far, we have considered various surveys of college students in general, each study presenting some part of the total picture. Our chief concern, however, lies with students who have financial need -- those who find paying for a college education a significant problem. How many of these financially needy students are working now? Should work-study opportunities be expanded for such students?

In 1983-1984 about 4.2 million undergraduates received financial aid (NIICU et al., 1984). At least 850,000 of these students received awards under the federal CWS program and thus were working part time. Colleges and universities say they could find CWS jobs for as many as another million students, requesting annually a total of $1.3 billion in federal funds. This is more than double current appropriations (CRS, 1985). It is perhaps surprising that according to a recent survey (cited in Miller and Hexter, 1985), only 30 percent of public college students from families with adjusted gross incomes below $15,000 who received federal financial aid participated in CWS, whereas 40 percent of independent college aid recipients from the same income category did so. In at least one state (Illinois), college work-study as a proportion of total undergraduate aid has been steadily declining (Dixon, 1985). Still, large numbers of students with financial need are now working, and demand for federal CWS funds far outstrips available dollars.

Needy students also work under state or institutional work-study programs, but their total number is unknown. Students also find their own jobs, independent of any organized work-study program; the number of these working students is unknown. Many students find jobs hard to get, especially summer jobs. Even more difficult is finding a job that pays well -- that is, anything above the minimum wage. According to a survey of dependent undergraduates who applied for state financial aid in Pennsylvania, over 15 percent said they were unemployed but looking for jobs during the summer of 1984. Only 8.7 percent were able to save $800 from their summer earnings (the minimum standard self-help expected by financial aid officers to be contributed from summer earnings for use toward educational expenses), and in fact only one third earned $800 or more during the summer months (Davis, 1985).

Students often discover that working the estimated average of 12 hours a week during school terms at the minimum wage or slightly above does not earn them a great deal to pay for spiraling college costs. Even full-time summer work at the same $3.35-$3.50 an hour will not pay all of a student's college bills, especially at more expensive independent colleges. Low student wages and the limited hours that students work under CWS are at least two factors behind the following survey findings:

- On average, most undergraduate financial aid recipients meet only 6 percent of their college expenses from organized work-study programs -- CWS, state, or institutional (NIICU, 1984). The additional amount they may earn by working elsewhere to pay for college is unknown.

- By contrast, grants meet from 19 to 30 percent of expenses for students at certain institutions, and loans help pay another 17 to 23 percent (see Table 1).

Federal CWS program appropriations are less than half of actual institutional requests. Some students cannot find jobs available and are classified as unemployed but seeking work. The majority of students do work, but for those on financial aid, organized work programs provide wages to meet only a small portion of their college costs.

Thus, a demand does exist for more work opportunities and higher wages for students with financial need. The next sections examine options at the federal, state, and institutional levels for expansion and improvement of student employment.

III. FEDERAL WORK-STUDY PROGRAMS

The U.S. Department of Education (ED) administers two programs supporting work-study opportunities, College Work-Study and Cooperative Education. There is also a proposal to add a work-study option under the State Student Incentive Grant program.

College Work-Study

CWS began as a Great Society program under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and, unlike some of the other programs of that era, it has enjoyed continuing political popularity and "generally high marks for its effectiveness" (Newman, forthcoming). It is a financial aid program designed to promote part-time employment for students who need the earnings to help pay for college. Now authorized under the Higher Education Act, Title IV, CWS is intended to be the third major aid alternative (together with grants and loans) for students with financial need. Since enacting Title IV in 1965, Congress has appropriated more than $6.8 billion for the program.

Through a series of allocation procedures, CWS funds are channeled to participating colleges and universities. Needy undergraduate, graduate, or professional students are eligible, and recipients are chosen by each institution. Federal appropriations provide up to 80 percent of student salaries (at least the minimum wage) for jobs either at the institution itself or off campus at public or private nonprofit agencies or organizations. The law states that employment must "to the maximum extent practicable, complement and reinforce the educational program or vocational goals" of each CWS student.

CWS jobs developed by each institution cannot, by law, "result in the displacement of employed workers or impair existing contracts for services."

According to the Congressional Research Service (CRS)(1985), an estimated 870,000 student awards were made during academic year 1984-1985 (average about $750) through CWS programs at approximately 3,600 participating institutions.

Table 1. Undergraduate Student-aid Recipients: Sources of Financing

	Dependent Students				Independent Students			
	Private Institutions		Public Institutions		Private Institutions		Public Institutions	
	Average dollars	Percent of total costs	Average dollars	Percent of total costs	Average dollars	Percent of total costs	Average dollars	Percent of total costs
Student expenses								
Tuition and fees	$5,088	60%	$1,117	27%	$4,055	42%	$ 899	15%
Other	3,452	40%	3,065	73%	5,696	58%	5,158	85%
Total expenses	8,540	100%	4,182	100%	9,751	100%	6,057	100%
Student resources								
Parental contribution	2,216	26%	1,025	25%	--	--	--	--
Grants (need-based)								
Pell	495	6%	725	17%	1,140	12%	897	15%
SEOG	176	2%	106	3%	126	1%	100	2%
State (including SSIG)	578	7%	168	4%	517	5%	120	2%
Institutional	495	6%	26	1%	1,140	12%	14	0%
Total grants	1,743	20%	1,025	25%	2,924	30%	1,131	19%
Student employment								
College Work-Study	423	5%	264	6%	285	3%	347	6%
State or institution	193	2%	6	0%	275	3%	9	0%
Total employment	616	7%	270	6%	560	6%	356	6%
Loans								
NDSL	302	4%	188	5%	274	3%	192	3%
GSL/FISL	1,627	19%	784	19%	1,463	15%	863	14%
Institutional	36	0%	4	0%	57	0%	2	0%
Total loans	1,965	23%	976	23%	1,794	18%	1,057	17%
Student contributions	1,280	15%	648	16%	3,114	32%	3,246	54%
Other aid	639	8%	168	4%	505	5%	139	2%
Total resources	$8,460	99%	$4,112	98%	$8,896	91%	$5,929	98%
Remaining need	$ 81	1%	$ 70	2%	$ 885	9%	$ 128	2%

Note: Each dollar figure is an average; individual averages may not add to subtotals and totals.

Source: "Survey of Student Aid Recipients" by the National Institute of Independent Colleges and Universities, American Association of State Colleges and Universities, National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges, and American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, from The Chronicle of Higher Education, August 1, 1984.

Schools can also use up to 10 percent of their CWS funds (or $25,000, whichever is less) to set up job location and development centers to assist all students to find part-time jobs. Another 10 percent of the funds can be used to support "community service learning" programs to develop public service work-study jobs. About 400 institutions have opened job location and development centers, but according to ED, community service programs have "rarely" been implemented (ibid., p. 104).

Little is known about CWS students or their jobs. The only major CWS program evaluation by the federal government (Friedman et al., 1973) is now outdated.

Tables 2 and 3 summarize available ED program data. Table 2 shows that dependent CWS recipients from the lower income categories (under $12,001) make up less than a quarter of all CWS recipients (Quincy, forthcoming). In part, this may be because financial aid officers at many schools tend not to give CWS jobs to the neediest students who may also be educationally disadvantaged and need to take remedial courses or spend extra time on coursework.

Table 2 also shows that dependent undergraduates in all income categories make up a large percentage of recipients but receive consistently smaller shares of awards than do either independent undergraduates or graduate students. In part this is probably due to the fact that independent students lacking parental resources are able to establish greater need than dependent students, and graduate students often face higher educational costs (another factor in establishing financial need).

Shifts over time have also occurred in the percentage of CWS funds going to various types of institutions, as shown in Table 3. The trend has been for more CWS dollars to flow to private four-year institutions, reflecting to some extent the increased educational costs at such schools. Proprietary institutions receive a very small share of CWS funds because their participation is limited to jobs located off campus.

Overall, the percentage of CWS jobs located off campus at nonprofit agencies and organizations has been declining in recent years, down to approximately 10 percent nationwide by ED estimate. Reasons for this trend may include many students' preference for the convenience of on-campus employment, institutional concerns about funding instability (CWS appropriations have varied as much as $60 million annually in the last several years), decreasing ability of off-campus public agencies to afford to hire CWS students, and institutional preference for locating jobs on campus (easier to administer and supportive of the institution).

Although ED cannot dictate to colleges and universities what kinds of CWS jobs should be provided, it can "encourage" schools to employ CWS students in certain capacities. Since 1982-1983, the Department has urged schools to employ CWS students as tutors in adult literacy programs -- a special initiative of the Reagan administration. Some 50 institutions have such efforts underway, employing an estimated 500-600 students. A description of one institution's CWS adult literacy program is included as Appendix A.

Table 2: Percentage Distribution of CWS Recipients and Awards for Selected Years*

Students	1978-1979 Recip.	1978-1979 Awards	1981-1982 Recip.	1981-1982 Awards	1982-1983 Recip.	1982-1983 Awards
Undergraduate Dependents						
Income less than $6,000	10.8	9.9	9.9	8.4	11.6	9.9
Income $6,001-12,000	11.3	10.4	11.0	10.3	11.3	11.2
Income $12,001-30,000	33.6	31.0	32.7	30.3	33.1	30.0
Income above $30,000	16.9	15.0	19.3	16.8	15.8	13.9
Total Dependents	(72.6)	(66.3)	(72.9)	(65.8)	(71.8)	(66.0)
Total Independent Undergraduates	21.8	24.9	21.9	24.4	22.9	24.8
Total Graduates	5.6	8.8	5.3	9.7	5.3	9.1

*Award amounts in constant 1982 dollars.

SOURCE: Quincy, Lynn, background tabulations for "Who Receives Federal Student Aid?" College Board, forthcoming.

Table 3. Percentage of CWS Funding
By Type of Institution, Selected Years

Institutional Type	1978-1979	1981-1982	1982-1983	1983-1984
Public four year	46.2	41.7	42.0	42.3
Public two year	19.0	16.0	16.0	15.9
Private four year	30.6	35.7	38.0	37.8
Private two year	2.4	2.8	1.4	1.6
Proprietary	1.8	3.7	2.5	2.5

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, "Annual Evaluation Report."

The process of congressional reauthorization of the Higher Education Act in 1985-1986 presents an opportunity to take a fresh look at the CWS program. Options for change center on two areas: (1) questions and concerns relating to expansion or redistribution of the CWS program; and (2) issues relating to improving the nature and quality of CWS jobs.

1. Expansion/Redistribution Issues

Expand CWS. In his study Higher Education and the American Resurgence (forthcoming), Frank Newman proposes that CWS be expanded in its present form. Newman argues for the merits of the program and the value of student work generally.

The Reagan administration, in its budget proposals for FY 1986, calls for "expansion" of CWS with a twist. Budget documents submitted to the Congress call for CWS to be amended and combined with another campus-based financial aid program, Supplemental Education Opportunity Grants (SEOG). A total of $850 million was requested for the combined work-grant program, under which institutions would be allowed to use up to 50 percent of their work-study allocations (a maximum of $425 million) for making Supplemental Grants. The Department's budget document explains that:

> While it is expected that the funds appropriated under the Work-Study program will be generally used to finance student employment opportunities, it is recognized that in some circumstances an institutionally-based grant may be more appropriate to complete the financial aid package for a needy student. Currently, only 10 percent of Work-Study funds may so be transferred (ED, 1985, p. 28).

The twist is that the $850 million appropriation request is nearly $160 million less than the combined funding levels for the two separate programs this year. The National Association of Student Employment Administrators (NASEA) was among the first groups to oppose this consolidation attempt, arguing that schools would use the full $425 million for grants, thus in effect reducing funds for CWS, not expanding them (NASEA, 1985). It is unlikely that Congress will agree to combine the programs and reduce their funding. It is also unlikely, however, that significantly higher appropriations for CWS will be enacted soon, and available CWS funds for FY 1986 may be frozen at the FY 1985 level of $590 million.

Improve the Allocation Formula. CWS funds flow to higher education institutions through a complex state and institutional allocation system. Many wonder if the process is equitable and fair. Do schools with students who need work get CWS funds in a reasonable manner? What is the best way to determine institutional need and allocate funds accordingly? ED documents describe the problem: "The main student eligibility criteria for a campus-based award is financial need, yet the two principal factors which control the distribution of funds, State allotments and institutional conditional guarantees, are minimally associated with this concept" (CRS, 1985, p. 213).

The formulas, both in legislation and Department regulation, are complicated and in fact have been used only partially in recent years (see Osman, 1984, for a detailed description of the state and institutional formulas, their use, and impact). CRS (1985) calls the search for an equitable allocation system one of the principal issues concerning CWS in the upcoming reauthorization. Congressional staff promise a careful review of the system before any new law is enacted. Recent discussion in the House has focused on eliminating the state allotment formula in the CWS allocation system. The result of such legislative revision would not be expansion of CWS but could mean better distribution of existing funds to schools and students needing them most.

Expand CWS at Proprietary Institutions. Currently, proprietary schools are restricted by law in their use of CWS funds to provision of jobs only at off-campus locations. The argument behind this restriction was that since the schools were profit-making entities, federal CWS funds should not be permitted to be used on campus in jobs supporting the school itself. The National Student Aid Coalition, among others, proposes now that proprietaries be allowed to employ CWS students on campus, but not in "related revenue-producing activities." CWS funds could only be used to employ students "who are engaged in normal administrative or student service support operations" at the schools. Methods to assure such separation of CWS jobs are unclear, however. Other proposals suggest that CWS students at proprietary institutions be permitted to work at jobs on campus that are solely related to providing student services.

Open CWS to Private Sector Employers. Extending CWS employment opportunities into all of the private sector has been debated for several years. Proponents say colleges can significantly increase the number of jobs available for students if they are permitted to use profit-making employers, not just nonprofit public or private entities. Behind this idea is the presumption that the employer percentage matching requirements (80-20 under current law) would be changed so that profit-making firms would pay a greater share of student wages (a 65-35 or even a 50-50 split has been suggested). Those in favor of this option also point out that the quality of CWS jobs and their relationship to academic studies and career goals could be improved.

Opponents believe that public tax dollars provided as student work aid should not be used to support the profit-making sector in any way. Some argue that administering such employment opportunities would tax institutions' already overburdened and understaffed student financial aid and employment offices. Others suggest that if CWS is to be broadened to include private sector employment, the expansion should be implemented only when incremental dollars become available in the CWS program. Nonprofit agencies, it is argued, should not be abandoned after they have supported the program for 20 years. Debate on this option will be a part of the CWS reauthorization, but at present the chances of enactment do not appear very good.

2. Quality of Work Issues

Frank Newman argues that the "significance" of CWS jobs should be increased. Although current law encourages colleges and universities to develop academically related CWS jobs, for one reason or another the goal has remained elusive. Some CWS students clean floors; others help in research

projects. A number of observers share the perception (without actual data) that too many CWS students work in low-skill jobs on campus. Some have suggested changing the legislative language from encouraging to requiring schools to provide more relevant CWS jobs. Institutional representatives say, on the other hand, that such a requirement would hamper their own flexibility to employ CWS students and might require additional funds for program administration. Morever, they note that some students may prefer routine, relatively undemanding jobs that distract as little as possible from heavy academic schedules.

The Department of Education's efforts to upgrade job quality by encouraging schools to employ students as literacy tutors were noted above. But the Department has little real authority to do much more. Positive initiatives in this direction are coming from the state and institutional levels (see next sections), but at the federal level no major efforts to improve the quality of CWS jobs are anticipated.

As one method of enhancing job content (and because he believes strongly in the broad concept), Newman proposes that schools "be encouraged to use at least 20 percent of their work-study funds for public service on and off campus." He maintains that public service was the original intent of CWS and argues that the program has since moved away from this concept. Some CWS students do work now in community-service-type jobs, but certainly not in the numbers envisioned by Newman. In a recent report, Ideas for Tomorrow, Choices for Today, the House Republican Research Committee proposed the use of CWS funds "together with donations from high-tech industries, to place college students as teacher's aides in high school math and science courses"(1985, p. 19). Others have suggested that CWS students could be employed in day-care centers. Reauthorization of the program may well include some directives about specific public service employment opportunities for CWS students.

Overall, however, few major changes should be expected. Although the potential to expand and improve CWS exists, budget constraints and reluctance on Capitol Hill to make program revisions will temper efforts to expand CWS significantly in the near future.

Cooperative Education

Since 1970 the federal government has provided a relatively small amount of funding to higher education institutions to stimulate development of cooperative education programs. These are programs with alternating or parallel periods of academic study and public or private employment related to the student's academic program or professional goals.

Cooperative education resembles work-study programs in that it helps students pay for college. Cooperative education differs, however, in a number of important ways:

- In cooperative education, students are not required to have financial need to participate.
- Cooperative education is systematically integrated into students' academic work, whereas jobs under work-study are often not directly related to studies.

- Cooperative education participants often receive academic credit for employment (most work-study students do not).

Federal support for cooperative education (authorized under Title VIII of the Higher Education Act) is provided through discretionary grants to schools for program administration, demonstration, training, and research. Federal monies cannot be used for student compensation (unlike CWS). Appropriations have totaled $14.4 million each year since FY 1982. Last year (FY 1984) 379 institutional applicants requested almost $54 million, with 184 receiving awards. Two-year colleges are particularly active participants, receiving slightly more than one third of the total grants and funds (see Patterson and Mahoney, 1985).

Some institutions have long been committed to the concept; Northeastern University, where 80 percent of students participate in cooperative education, is a notable example. From 1970 to 1982 the total number of institutional cooperative education programs rose from 200 to 1,016 (Cooperative Education Research Center, 1982). ED estimates that as many as 175,000 students are enrolled. Yet, despite the fact that about one third of all colleges and universities have participated in cooperative education at some time, only an estimated two percent of all students have actually been enrolled (CRS, 1985, p. 396).

The major issue now facing cooperative education is its survival as a federal program. The FY 1986 Reagan administration budget requested no funds at all for cooperative education. For the last several years, the administration has maintained that because the program has been quite successful in demonstrating and encouraging the cooperative education concept, further federal support is unnecessary. In addition, budget documents claim that it is in the best financial interests of higher education institutions to maintain their own cooperative education programs (ED, 1985).

A main reason the federal government has been so successful in spreading the concept is that it really appears to work. Although the last major study of cooperative education came out in 1977, its results seem to indicate that both institutions and students have gained from participating. Institutions gain by developing close contacts with the business community, by upgrading their own curriculum accordingly, and by operating essentially year-round. Students gain because they receive salaries while enrolled and usually earn academic credit as well, since jobs are directly related to coursework. Many are ultimately hired by one of the companies they worked for as students, a recognition of their valuable experience with the firm. Cooperative education seems most likely to succeed at schools located in metropolitan areas offering engineering, business, and health professions programs where job placements can be directly related to academic courses.

Innovative efforts are underway as well. For example, the Mott Foundation recently awarded a grant to the National Commission for Cooperative Education in Boston to develop and implement a state model for strengthening cooperative education.

Problems exist, however. Institutions find the program costly to administer and sometimes burdensome, since much work is involved in

coordinating a cooperative education program with faculty and with employers. Some institutions, once their eligibility for federal funding is over, have dropped cooperative education offerings. Another problem is that faculty at some institutions are reluctant to give academic credit for off-campus work experience, no matter how closely related to a student's academic coursework.

Critics also say the program has tended to be "middle class," and that it "avoids taking risks with those students who may be in greatest need of the opportunities . . ." (Patterson and Mahoney, p. 21; this article presents a fuller discussion of the issue).

As reauthorization gets underway the question will be raised -- what should be the federal role regarding cooperative education? The concept (and variations on its theme) is being adopted informally at many schools -- through contract arrangements with employers to provide courses for their employees, through closer ties with business and industry to relate academic studies to job requirements, and through more sophisticated efforts by student employment offices on campuses to find relevant jobs for students. Perhaps federal efforts should focus on bringing more disadvantaged students into cooperative-education-type programs. The Reagan administration suggested this notion indirectly last year by proposing that cooperative education activities be supported through CWS (where only needy participants are eligible). But that proposal was not repeated this year -- instead, the budget simply called for elimination of all federal cooperative education support.

Possible Revision of the State Student Incentive Grant Program

As part of the reauthorization process, various education associations have proposed legislative revision of another federal program, the State Student Incentive Grant (SSIG) program, to encourage further development of state-level work-study programs. SSIG as now enacted provides grants to states to assist them in providing grants to eligible students attending higher education institutions. The suggested amendment to the SSIG program provides that states may continue to use their funds to make grants to students or may use a portion or all of the funds to assist students in a state work-study program or for other defined purposes. In this way, federal funds could be used to supplement state monies in those states that operate their own work-study programs.

* * *

Whatever the outcome of the debate over the federal role, states do support a number of innovative student work programs with their own funds. These are described in more detail in the next section.

IV. STATE WORK-STUDY PROGRAMS

Interest in student work-study programs has mushroomed in the states in recent years. Some 17 states now fund student work programs, and another 15 have plans for such programs at various stages of development. Most of the operating programs have been started within the past five years. See the map (Figure 2), next page, for details.

Figure 2. State Work-Study Programs

Source: National Association of Student Employment Administrators and state reports

Why are states willing to use their scarce tax dollars for college student work programs? There are several reasons. State educators and legislators are concerned about the same problems apparent on the national scene -- rising higher education costs, decreasing access opportunities for lower and middle income students, and sharpened public perception that loan burdens of these students and their families are unreasonably high.

Local problems spur interest in work-study programs as well. Pleas from state colleges and universities for additional student financial aid come as institutions find they must raise tuitions to meet costs. And the pressure of recent reports calling for improvement in the higher education system, as well as persistent student demands for greater career relevance in college studies, combine to make state officials more aware of the need to provide student jobs tied more closely to educational programs. The idea of helping students work their way through college is also politically popular. Equally attractive is the matching feature of the programs, which requires additional dollars to be generated by employers beyond state appropriation levels.

This combination of circumstances leads one state observer to title a recent article "Work-Study: A Program to Fit the Times?" (Mingle, 1985). Fearing budget cuts in federal student aid programs, Mingle sees states "likely to be left to their own devices to deal with the problems in student aid." Even though he recognizes that support for state-based grant programs has increased significantly since 1980, Mingle believes that "substantial increases in state-based grant programs are not feasible in most states" in the near future.

Thus, state-level interest in student work programs increases. States with plans for work-study programs in various stages of development are outlined in a chart found in Appendix B. Individual states with programs already in operation are unable, of course, to come anywhere close to appropriating funds at the $550 million dollar level of the federal CWS program. But some have committed significant dollar amounts to their programs, as shown in Table 4.

In developing these programs, most states used the federal CWS programs as a model, but in some cases merely as a point of departure. In fact, one of the most interesting aspects of these state programs is their degree of innovation. Officials in many states moved boldly to implement changes in the CWS model -- changes that Congressional lawmakers still hesitate to make in the federal program. These include the following:

- Several states now permit participation by private sector employers.
- Some states require a direct relationship between students' jobs and their academic career interests.
- Minnesota allows handicapped individuals and persons over 65 to employ state-sponsored work-study students.
- Washington requires hourly pay rates for students be equal to entry level rates for comparable positions within the employing organization.

Table 4. State Support for Work-Study Programs

State	$ in 1984-1985	Estimated Participants
Colorado	6,669,226	6,500
Connecticut	*	*
District of Columbia	**	**
Florida	970,000	2,800
Indiana	460,000	1,000
Kansas	**	**
Kentucky	1,000,000	410
Massachusetts	1,500,000	1,000
Minnesota	4,428,600	7,300
Montana	290,790	700
New York	5,308,637	NA***
New Mexico	1,134,000	1,500
North Carolina	1,436,400	NA***
Pennsylvania	2,268,000	NA***
Rhode Island	500,000	900
Vermont	75,000	55
Washington	6,201,000	5,400

*Participating institutions can use state funds for grants or work opportunities, up to $2,000,000 in FY 85.
**Details not available.
***NA = not applicable. Federal CWS matching programs. Funds in Pa. also include a state Work-Study program.
SOURCES: Reports from individual states and NASSGP Surveys

Arguments about the merits of these various innovations abound, echoing arguments made at the federal level. Washington State is particularly frank about its support for private sector employment, for example, claiming in an attractive brochure promoting the program to profit-making firms, that "it makes good, practical business sense to hire productive, cost-effective employees," that is, work-study students whose wages are paid in part by the state. The idea has caught on but has not been universally accepted; about half the states with work-study programs on the drawing board would extend eligibility to the private sector.

Requiring a close relationship between students' academic studies and their work experience (like cooperative education) is also an idea that has its share of supporters and detractors. For students, there is a clear advantage in most cases to finding work in areas that will enhance and expand the value of their academic studies. Institutions, however, sometimes find it difficult to identify such placement opportunities, especially with limited staff, and they maintain that such a requirement limits their flexibility to develop and administer a work-study program.

Table 5 is a comparison of state work-study program similarities and differences.

Matching provisions required in state programs vary greatly, depending in part on the nature of eligible employers. For example, Massachusetts requires an 80-20 match for public or private nonprofit employers, but a 50-50 match from private sector firms. In Colorado and Connecticut, no match is required if the jobs are on campus at participating institutions. In Kentucky, the state provides a flat $1.50 per hour for each student, and the employer pays the remainder of the wage. In all cases, if the state opens the program to profit-making companies, a higher match is required.

What are the prospects for development of state work-study programs in the future? Interest appears high, and states with existing programs talk of expansion in various ways. Because so many of the state programs are newly implemented, it is probably too early to forecast their success or longevity. Several states that have delayed plans for programs note that fiscal constraints (declining oil revenues in Alaska and Texas), not lack of support for the idea of work-study, are the main factors behind any delays in implementation.

There may be an additional constraint on the development of state work-study programs, however. Some states planning new programs are concerned about possible labor union resistance. Institutions are free to use work-study students to maintain campus operations (except proprietary schools), but most state work-study laws include the standard phrase prohibiting displacement of existing workers (copied usually from the wording in the federal CWS law).

Depending on the course of the national economy and the revenue outlook at the state level, more states seem likely to begin or expand student work programs over the next several years. Knowledgeable observers of the state financial aid scene say, however, that even expanded student work programs will never be sufficient to meet students' educational costs. Total state appropriations for work-study programs remain low, certainly in comparison

Table 5. Comparison of State Work-Study Programs

Similarities	Differences
Many states	A few states
Make financial need a major criterion of eligibility	Open at least a portion of their program to students with no financial need
Generally do not restrict categories of student eligibility, beyond good academic standing	Restrict student eligibility to undergrads and/or full-time attendance
Emphasize academic or career-related jobs	Require such a relationship for jobs
Allow (or require) state funds to supplement federal CWS funds	Forbid state funds to be used as a federal CWS supplement
Permit all eligible instate schools (public and private) to participate	Limit institutional participation (only publics--2 states, only privates--1)
Require students to be state residents	Permit limited participation by out-of-state students or even schools
Allow only public or private non-profit organizations to be employers	Open program to profit-making firms (5 states)
Forbid worker displacement, sectarian or partisan political activities	

with the magnitude of the federal CWS program. Comprehensive data are unavailable, but across the states, many students receive only the minimum wage for their work, and average earnings often do not exceed $1,000. Most students will continue to seek a package of federal grants and loans as well as local funds to meet their college costs. More may well decide to study only part time so they can find full-time employment to help pay for college.

Institutions, particularly independent colleges and universities, are sensitive to the limits in public sources of student aid. The next section examines some of their efforts to help students pay tuition bills through work.

V. WORK PROGRAMS AT INSTITUTIONS

Most of the nation's colleges and universities have some sort of student employment program. A few have been especially creative in developing such programs, seeking to address the issues of new job creation, higher wages, job relevance, and new learning opportunities for students. Some of these innovative programs are described below.

A number of comprehensive student employment programs at major institutions are so large and require such complex and sophisticated management that corporation presidents might be impressed. Sheer size requires these programs to be combined and organized in very professional ways. Colorado State University's "high volume" program, for example, assists more than 9,000 students whose job earnings last year exceeded $12 million. Colorado State's employment service offers jobs to students through CWS and state-funded programs and also employs 5,000 students annually on campus on an hourly (non-work-study) basis.

The University of Minnesota employs over 17,000 students a year -- about 30-35 percent of the institution's total work force. Offering a combination of federal, state and institutional programs, the university budgets over $320,000 just for administration of its student employment service and estimates annual student earnings at nearly $70 million. Students are paid at rates comparable to nonstudents for the same kind of work, and in return, university departments "are free to request comparable qualifications and hours" (National Association of Student Employment Administrators, 1985, p. 22).

Some institutions emphasize work as a valued and integral component of the educational experience. A number of small independent and church-affiliated schools -- among them Alice Lloyd, Berea, Blackburn, LeMoyne-Owen, and Warren Wilson -- have mandatory work programs in which all enrolled students must work. At LeMoyne-Owen College in Tennessee, for example, every student participates in the college's cooperative education program -- alternating two trimesters of on-campus classroom study with one trimester of off-campus paid professional work experience in a field usually related to the student's degree major ("Report," 1982, p. A19).

Work programs at other small schools, such as Berry, Bluffton, and Oakwood Colleges, are not mandatory but share similar characteristics. In particular they all started as a way to help poor (largely rural) students finance their educations, but evolved into a mix of work and learning that became an ethic of the institutions themselves.

Support for the work ethic is not restricted to small institutions. At Cornell University, the Cornell Tradition offers several programs to students who demonstrate particular commitment and "motivation to contribute to the cost of education through employment, unusual enterprise and the pursuit and achievement of excellence in work and scholarship." (NASEA, 1984, p. 18). Begun in part due to alumni concern about growing loan burdens incurred by Cornell students, the Cornell Tradition relies heavily on alumni support through financial contributions or through provision of jobs for students. What distinguishes colleges as diverse as Cornell and LeMoyne-Owen from other institutions with student employment programs is a strong emphasis on work itself and a belief that students who cannot afford to pay their way should be able to work to pay for their educational costs.

Other institutions have developed innovative work programs designed to expand available jobs and to help their students pay for college. Several examples follow:

- Boston University's Quickie Job Service provides students with temporary, one-time jobs. The service has proven valuable to students with academic schedules that don't allow long-term work, but who need extra income to pay their bills. The University expects 1,500 students to earn about $150,000 this year doing odd jobs in the greater Boston community -- everything from bartending to house cleaning. At the University of Minnesota, a similar program, the Student Emergency Service, finds temporary on-campus jobs for students.

- Union College, Lincoln, Nebraska, offers to pay off-campus employers a partial reimbursement of wages if the employer hires a Union student. Called the "Cheap Labor" program, Union pays the employer 50 cents for each hour a student works, up to 20 hours a week for the first six months on the job. Wages must be at or above the minimum wage. The program has created new student jobs through good employer response.

- Guilford Technical Community College in Jamestown, North Carolina, seeks out private company sponsors for its Technical Scholars program. Participating firms agree to pay tuition, books and fees for designated students who are then employed part time by the company. Student jobs are in three specific curriculum areas.

- Burlington College's Service Scholarship program is similar to Guilford's in that the school seeks corporate and other donors to pay for students' education. At Burlington, however, the tax deductible private donations are used to employ the financially

needy students not in the firm itself, but in nonprofit community agencies and organizations.

- SUNY-Brockport uses two federal programs to help needy students find jobs: the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit program and the Summer Youth Employment and Training Program. The Targeted Jobs program allows employers who hire a disadvantaged student (ages 18-24) to take a tax credit for up to 50 percent of the first $6,000 in wages paid during the student's first year of employment. Under the Summer Youth Program, the college has been designated as a "worksite" and disadvantaged students up to age 21 are hired in CETA-paid jobs to work on campus.

At a number of colleges and universities, students help run the campus bookstore or similar services, earning salaries to pay for school. But an especially creative idea has been adopted at several of the Ivy League institutions, for example Princeton, Harvard, Columbia, and Penn. Called the Student Agencies or Student Enterprises program, the idea is to have students earn money by providing goods and services to other students on campus. At Princeton, the agencies are franchises set up, managed, and staffed by students; they sell everything from linen services to microcomputers and late night pizza. The university supplies the initial capital, equipment, and office space, but student sales help repay this investment, while student managers and sales persons earn commissions on their sales. Average earnings are about $1,000, but at least one exceptional saleswoman earned nearly $7,000 selling designer sweaters to other students one year. More than the welcome income, students involved in such programs claimed at a recent Columbia University conference that the sales and management skills learned through their student agencies experience make them more confident and attractive job applicants upon graduation.

The above examples show just a few innovative ways schools are trying to find more jobs for students, often quite apart from federal or state work-study programs. (For more information about innovative programs and methods for establishing them, write to the National Association of Student Employment Administrators, c/o Barbara Lutz, University of Texas at Arlington, Student Employment Service, UTA Box 19619, Arlington, Texas 76019.) At the same time, a number of institutions are making special efforts to improve the quality of student jobs. Western Washington University has made a "special commitment" to improve on-campus student work. For the past several years, the school has developed career-related paraprofessional positions, so that now over 40 percent of the employed students work at this skill level. Western Washington provides training classes and workshops for the students and their supervisors to ensure the program's success.

In a broad, long-term effort to "link students' jobs to the quality of the education," the Charles A. Dana Foundation recently awarded $200,000 to each of 10 private colleges. The grants are intended to increase available student aid funds at the schools while enhancing the educational value of students' term-time and summer work. As a condition to receiving a Dana grant, each institution agreed to raise at least $400,000 itself in new financial aid funds for the same purposes. Overall, the Dana initiative is designed to help

the 10 private colleges provide student jobs that reinforce academic work, develop research or teaching skills, help explore career directions, or provide experience in cultural, social service, or political activities.

One recipient, Furman University, plans to use its Dana Foundation grant to establish three separate aid programs: Research Fellows will be Furman seniors with high academic grades who will work full time during the summer assisting professors on research projects; Teaching Fellows will work five hours a week during the academic year as junior colleagues to faculty members, assisting with instructional projects; and Trainees will receive educationally related summer jobs through support of alumni and friends of the university.

Other institutions receiving Dana grants include Bates College, Bucknell University, Cooper Union, Dickinson College, Kalamazoo College, Mt. Holyoke College, Oberlin College, Parsons School of Design, and Wellesley College. And another four institutions, Bryn Mawr College, Ithaca College, Pratt Institute, and Wesleyan University, received grants from the Dana Foundation in June 1985. The Foundation plans to award a number of additional grants under this program.

Thus, while some schools settle for having students do routine campus jobs, other institutions are finding constructive and exciting ways to develop new student jobs and improve existing ones -- sometimes without any reliance on outside public funding.

VI. FINAL THOUGHTS

What can one conclude about the feasibility and value to students of working their way through college? Following are some personal reflections developed during the course of this enquiry.

No Panacea

First, it is important to recognize that organized work-study programs -- federal, state, and institutional -- are no panacea for the problem of helping students meet rising college costs. The finite scope of public and institutional funds dictates that most students shouldn't expect to pay their tuition increases solely or substantially through organized programs.

Limited data already available suggest the need for more work-study funds, but prospects are dim in this big-deficit era for major expansion of the federal programs. The states appear willing to expand their support of work-study programs, but they can't be expected to invest the millions of new dollars that appear to be needed. Colleges and universities may well have to rely on their own limited resources to develop new programs and new jobs.

In addition, there are pros and cons to the arguments for expanding student work. Meeting financial necessity is one thing, but some educators and others see dangers in students working too much. Too many loans, too much work -- either can be detrimental. Academic quality of life suffers when students work long hours, they suggest, and some students from educationally

disadvantaged backgrounds need to concentrate full time on studies, especially in their first and second undergraduate years. On the other hand, recent research (Dixon, 1985) has shown that when students work (less than 20 hours a week), persistence and retention, along with student satisfaction, increase.

Whatever the level of support for structured work-study programs and whatever the proper limits to expanding student work in light of academic considerations, more students will need to get jobs and work longer hours to pay for college. Many will do so on their own, finding jobs in the local community. Ironically, many may actually earn more if they get their own jobs, because they may have a better chance to work more hours or to earn salaries above the minimum wage if they find jobs on their own than if they take a CWS or similar job.

More students can be expected to get full-time jobs and attend college only on a part-time basis if college costs continue their rapid upward climb. A surprising percentage may even manage to study full time while working full time. In a recent study of students at selected urban institutions, the College Board found almost half of the students who said they were working full time were also taking 12 or more credits, a full-time course load (College Board, 1985).

Thus, many students must work to at least some extent to pay for college. Organized work-study programs will not solve all the problems of paying for college. They do serve very important purposes, however. Over a million students a year benefit through one of the federal programs, and more get state work-study funds as well. Significant amounts of public tax dollars support these students. How can the federal, state, and institutional programs be improved?

Improvements?

At the federal level we really don't know how well the existing CWS program works and who benefits from it. Imagine a private company spending at least $500 million a year for the last seven years and not knowing what it was getting for its investment! It is difficult, if not foolhardy, to suggest improving a program whose operational details we know so little about. One hesitates to issue what is merely one more call for better data, for research and evaluation -- but surely the need is evident. Should the CWS allocation formula be changed? Should the skill levels and "significance" of CWS jobs be upgraded? Should the program be opened further at proprietary schools, at profit-making firms?

One reason for apparent Congressional reluctance to revise CWS may well be that the program seems to work, and overall, "if it isn't broken, don't fix it." But following this logic means that the potential is lost to make legislative adjustments that might significantly improve CWS when we can't document, in particular, what works and what doesn't.

At the state level, innovative ideas for improving work-study programs are being tested and implemented everywhere. States have shown little reluctance to adopt better ideas if they seem workable. Perhaps their experience with some of the more innovative program options will encourage institutions and even federal policymakers (can good ideas filter up?) to try some of these variations on work-study.

Institutions, particularly independent colleges and universities, have unique opportunities to expand jobs and improve work-study programs. Too many schools appear content to run existing CWS programs, making periodic pleas for more money but doing little else to improve jobs or expand opportunities. Yet creative efforts <u>are</u> underway. There needs to be a greater exchange of information so that more schools can try ideas other colleges have already found effective. The National Association of Student Employment Administrators provides one forum for such exchange, and financial aid officers gather regularly at various associational meetings around the country. Newsletters from the various organizations help spread ideas for improvements. Whatever the means, more good ideas for institutional work-study programs need to be tested and shared. Creative financing techniques and new job development strategies should be high on the list of investigation for those searching for better ways to run work-study programs.

Finally, more institutions should consider Frank Newman's call for additional work-study jobs serving the public interest -- both on and off campus. Can at least some portion of financial aid be restructured in the form of a social contract? Can't students enjoying the benefits of a publicly subsidized college education make some community service contribution in return? Such community service job programs should be voluntary rather than mandatory, it seems to me, and they should be initiated at the option of the institution and through student choice.

Stephen Barkanic of the Dana Foundation may well be right when he says we are overly concerned about possible erosion of public funding. Instead, it appears that we are suffering from an "erosion of vision" in the general debate about student financial aid and about work-study programs in particular. We are perhaps placing too much emphasis on protecting what exists rather than considering what could be. Proposed cuts should be resisted, of course; if anything, more money is needed. But having said those things, let's also get about the business of improving student work programs. Working one's way though college is going to be a fact of life for students for many years to come.

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APPENDIXES

Boston University

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Boston, Massachusetts 02215

Appendix A

COLLABORATIONS FOR LITERACY: AN INTERGENERATIONAL LITERACY PROJECT

COLLEGE WORK-STUDY ADULT LITERACY TUTORS

Purpose: As part of the National Adult Literacy Initiative, Boston University conducts a literacy tutoring program providing reading instruction to adults who read from the 0-4 grade level. Adults are coached by tutors to read children's books featured in the popular TV series, "Reading Rainbow". Reading activities for adults and children are emphasized. The project employs work-study students and is a dependable service to the community.

Clients Served: English-speaking adults who are 16 years old and over, out-of school, without a high school diploma are recruited in the community. Adults who are interested in reading to and with children ages 4-11 on a regular basis are invited to participate. Twenty to thirty individuals will receive reading tutorial services during the academic year. Tutoring services are free. Clients should be available for at least 2 hours per week for tutoring. Services are confidential. Hours are arranged between the client and tutor at their convenience.

Tutor Information: Fifteen carefully selected college work-study students are trained by Literacy Volunteers of Massachusetts to provide literacy tutoring at two community sites. Each tutor serves two clients meeting with them individually at least once a week for 2 hours. In addition, tutors are required to attend a weekly inservice seminar conducted by the faculty advisor. Course credit is optional. Tutors are paid through the Federal College Work-Study Program.

Tutor Job Description: Tutors are required to attend an 18 hour training in Basic Reading; review all Reading Rainbow tapes and read the 20 featured books; prepare appropriate lesson plans and homework for clients; tutor clients for a minimum of 2 hours per week; attend weekly inservice meetings; maintain weekly contact with Tutor coordinator; provide additional evaluation data as required; satisfy additional academic requirements if applicable; assist in project related task as requested

Project Administration: The project is located at the School of Education Boston University, 605 commonwealth Avenue. The Project Director is Dr. Ruth Nickse, Associate Professor, School of Education. The Assistant Director is Nancy Englander. (617) 353-4634.

Project Collaborators: Those who collaborate to make this project possible include: Jackson-Mann Community School, Literacy Volunteers of Massachusetts, the Massachusetts Board of Library Commissioners, the Brighton Branch, Boston Public Library and the Institute for Responsive Education.

Project Sponsorship: Sponsors of the project are the Massachusetts State Department of Education, the Hyams Trust Foundation, B. Dalton Bookseller and Boston University.

Appendix B.

STAIUS OF STATE PLANS FOR WORK-STUDY PROGRAMS, SEPTEMBER 1985

Alaska	A work-study bill was introduced previously, but not passed. With state revenues declining at present, reintroduction of the bill is not likely soon.
Arizona	The possibility of a work-study program is being studied by the Arizona Commission for Postsecondary Education.
California	Legislation was introduced (February 1985) for a California state work-study program after extensive study and a report prepared by the Postsecondary Education Commission. The bill introduced would direct the new program to needy California students attending public or private institutions in the state, providing them with "educationally beneficial" employment with public or private employers. Appropriations of $1.5 million would be authorized. Action on the bill has been postponed until January, 1986.
Delaware	Legislation was introduced two years ago but not acted upon, and the bill has not been reintroduced.
Iowa	Legislation was introduced (February 1985) to establish an Iowa college work-study program. The bill would focus on students in need of employment earnings to pursue postsecondary education at Iowa public or private institutions. Eligible employers would include only public or nonprofit private organizations, and participating institutions would be required to "provide moneys for the programs equal to or greater than the funds appropriated by the general assembly." The bill calls for a $1 million appropriation. The state legislature passed the bill, but no funds were appropriated due to fiscal constraints in the state.
Michigan	The "Report of the Governor's Commission on the Future of Higher Education in Michigan" (December 1984) recommends authorization and funding of a need-based undergraduate work-study program to "augment a currently inadequate CWS Program." The report recommends a $5 million annual appropriation "to offer students at degree-granting colleges and universities greater opportunities through on-campus jobs." (p. 2).
Nebraska	Legislation was introduced (January 1985) to establish a need-based work-study program for students at Nebraska public and private institutions. Eligible employers would be public or private nonprofit organizations. The bill was held in committee.
New Jersey	Legislation was filed to establish the Garden State Work-Study Program, providing employment and financial assistance to needy

undergraduate and graduate students attending a N.J. college or university. Ten percent of the monies could be reserved for non-need awards. Students would be eligible to seek employment in the private sector. A companion bill was also filed to allow employers hiring work-study students to claim a tax credit equal to 50 percent of the base salary paid during the year to each student. No action has been taken on these bills as yet.

North Dakota — A bill was introduced but not passed to establish a college work-study program to assist financially needy N.D. students attending public or private postsecondary institutions in the state. Employers were limited to public or private nonprofit organizations, with up to 20 percent of the monies available for non-need awards. The legislation authorizes $2,020,000 and will be reintroduced in the next legislative session.

Ohio — Plans are being developed to introduce a bill into the Ohio legislature. As drafted, the bill creates a state work-study program, a state cooperative education program, and a pilot work-study program utilizing private sector employers.

Oklahoma — A preliminary proposal for an "Earn to Learn" Incentive Program is being circulated. It states "through a special appropriation to the Okla. State Regents for Higher Education, matching grants will be made available to state system institutions on a 50-50 basis to be used for campus jobs for undergraduate students not eligible for federal work-study assistance." The proposal has not been implemented, but hopes are that the idea can be placed before the 1986 session of the legislature.

Oregon — A proposal by the State Scholarship Commission was presented to the Oregon legislature to establish a Student Employment Program providing financial assistance to needy students attending eligible postsecondary institutions in Oregon by "stimulating and promoting their part-time employment; and to provide such needy students with employment related to their education pursuits or career goals." The program would be directed toward students with financial needs not met by other need-based programs, and would include employers from both the public and private sectors. Institutions will be encouraged to offer academic credit for experience gained through employment, where appropriate. The proposal was not enacted this year.

Texas — Legislation for a work-study program has been drafted but not introduced in the Texas legislature due to fiscal constraints. As proposed, the program would focus on needy students but allow some percentage of funds for non-need awards. Private sector employers could participate in at least part of the program.

Utah — A pilot project has been proposed to establish a state college work study program at the nine public institutions in Utah. The program would be open to employers in the private sector.

Virginia	Legislation was passed in 1983, but not funded, to establish a work-study program that would provide financial assistance to students attending eligible postsecondary institutions in Va. and provide employment related to their academic pursuits. Students would be employed off campus by public or private employers unless an on-campus job is determined to have "potential educational or career benefits" and if state funds will not be used to supplant federal CWS program funds.